

STONE MASONRY CONFINEMENT WITH FRP AND FRCM COMPOSITES

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ABSTRACT

In the last decades, there are many reports on the use of composites as reinforcement of structural elements under compression, especially regarding the confinement of concrete structures, but works on stone or masonry columns are limited. Initially, FRP jackets were used because their high structural performance. However, they present some drawbacks like aesthetics or water impermeability, which can affect their applicability in historical constructions made in stone. Recently, FRCM appeared as an alternative with better compatibility with masonry structures. In the present study, a comparison between different composite materials to confine masonry specimens was made. FRPs with carbon or glass fibers and epoxy matrix, and FRCM with basalt or glass fiber mesh in a cementitious matrix were used to confine masonry, made in calcarenite cylindrical pieces and lime mortar. Strength and ductility gains under compressive loads were measured, and compared to the recommendations of different guidelines. Unidirectional FRPs were the optimal solution from a strengthening point of view. On the other hand, FRCM confinement offered more ductility than unreinforced masonry, but showed a softening behavior. Finally, regarding the studied design codes, the specific parameters included for masonry structures seemed enough to obtain accurate predictions of the compressive strength increase due to the confinement with the tested composites.

Keywords: masonry, stone, confinement, FRP, FRCM, TRM.

1. INTRODUCTION

A great deal of the built architectural heritage is made in stone and masonry structural systems. These structures require retrofitting or reinforcement solutions because of the natural degradation of materials, service load changes due to new use, or even to improve the structural response after or in case of extraordinary events, such as fires or earthquakes. In those cases, lateral confinement

could be a suitable solution to gain mechanical strength in columns under longitudinal compression. Traditionally, these reinforcements have been designed using steel profiles. However, composites appeared as an alternative that has been proven successful [1,2]. Composite reinforcements present several advantages, like low self-weight, low maintenance cost and high durability. In addition, they can easily adapt to the external shape of the reinforced element for a less intrusive solution. Nowadays, composites for this type of reinforcement can be classified in two categories depending on the nature of the matrix, polymer or cement. The former, fiber reinforced polymers (FRP) usually use epoxy resins. The latter use modified cement mortars, and are known as fabric reinforced cementitious matrix (FRCM), also identified in scientific literature as textile reinforced mortars (TRM). The use of FRPs in the rehabilitation of civil engineering structures started in the early 1990's [3]. However, in the particular case of heritage constructions, FRCM solutions are recently gaining weight because they present better compatibility with the stone or masonry substrate, and unlike FRP systems based on epoxy resins FRCM layers are permeable coatings in structures with damp or humidity problems [4-6].

Since 1990's, many researchers focused on the effect of FRP jackets to improve the strength of concrete columns [7-11]. These works led to the formulation of different confinement models to simulate the behavior of confined concrete elements with great accuracy [12-14]. On the other hand, FRCM reinforcements have been developed recently, thus there are few reports regarding their use [15-18], and the behavior models are still to be perfectly adapted, especially compared to the confinement with FRP [19]. Nonetheless, most of the research on confinement with either FRCM or FRP has been focused on concrete reinforcement, but some references can be found regarding the effect on masonry or stone elements.

The experimental evaluation of FRP solutions for the confinement of masonry or stone columns has been made considering different sections and ratios, several types of rock, or even with non-continuous reinforcements. Aiello et al. [20,21] studied the confinement of calcareous rock specimens with circular or rectangular cross sections. In these cases, the reinforcement was made in

carbon or glass fiber fabrics (CFRP or GFRP respectively), which were casted as continuous jackets or narrower horizontal stripes with different widths and separations. Continuous FRP jackets increased 93% the strength of the bare masonry, with 200% increase of the ultimate strain. On the other hand, non-continuous confinements may produce the failure of the unreinforced part of the specimen, but if the separation between FRP stripes was limited the performance was similar than a continuous FRP jacket. Faella et al. [22] studied CFRP and GFRP reinforcements, but in specimens from different types of stone (calcareous and volcanic). Both of these confined stones presented a bilinear stress-strain curve, but the transition point between different stiffness changed. In the confinement of the volcanic rock (with lower strength), this transition was detected at the strength of the bare rock, while it appeared at almost twice the strength of calcareous samples. Micelli et al. [23] made a study similar to [20] but, in addition to FRP jackets, including also reinforcements of FRCM or shape memory alloys (in which an active confinement could be achieved). The confinement solutions using FRCM produced a smaller strength gain than FRP alternatives. However, FRCM confinements led to a more ductile behavior, avoiding the brittle failure of the unreinforced masonry. Witzany & Zigler [24,25] tested large scale masonry columns made with regular rectangular stone elements or irregular pieces. In these cases, the confinement was discontinuous and made using horizontal CFRP stripes. A loss of efficiency of the confinement was related to the rectangular cross-section of the specimens or the discontinuous configuration of the confinement. Estevan et al. [26,27] evaluated the effectiveness of CFRP and GFRP continuous jackets in confined rock cylindrical specimens after being exposed to high temperatures inside an oven or using real fire. In these damaged samples, the FRP confinement was capable of achieving strength values similar to undamaged specimens confined with the same material. Regarding the effect of FRCM confinement of masonry elements, few references can be found [28-31]. Finally, the available confinement models for FRP or FRCM jackets and stone or masonry columns are very scarce at the moment and, in fact, are an adaptation of concrete models, in which some parameters have been modified [32,33]. As a summary of these references, in general, the effect of jacketing

with composites on the mechanical performance of masonry specimens has been observed in the increase of their compressive strength (up to three times the strength of unreinforced masonry depending on the properties of the composite), and higher ductility related to the increase of the ultimate strain of the confined masonry. The effectiveness of the confinement may be compromised in elements with rectangular cross section, because the stress concentration in the corners reduces the confinement efficiency, but may be controlled modifying the curvature of the corners. Besides, similar strengthening ratios can be obtained even with discontinuous jackets, in which the distance between consecutive strips should be controlled to obtain an adequate confinement level.

Considering the aforementioned references as a representation of the scientific production in this particular matter (confinement of masonry columns using FRP and FRCM), similar limitations can be found in the recommendations included in the structural design codes of different countries [34-39]. Most of them have considered almost exclusively the confinement of concrete structures. Only the Italian guides, CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 [34] and the recently published CNR-DT 215/2018 [35], make particular considerations for masonry columns and FRP or FRCM confinements, respectively. In both cases, the constitutive laws for confined specimens are analogue to concrete models with slight modifications.

Therefore, the main objective of the current work was aimed at the confinement of cylindrical stone masonry specimens using composite materials (FRP or FRCM jackets). As presented before, there is a lack of references covering this topic, because they are often focused on concrete reinforcement instead of stone or brick masonry. In this case, stone specimens were fabricated with three cylindrical pieces and lime mortar. Afterwards, composite jackets with different fibers and matrices were casted (epoxy resin with carbon or glass fibers, and cement matrix with glass or basalt fiber mesh) to determine the efficacy of each system. In addition, the experimental results have been compared to the predictions based on the recommendations of the Italian guides [34,35], which are the only two that consider specific expressions and coefficients for masonry elements. The stone

105 samples for this research were calcarenites (San Julian's stone), which was used in the construction
106 of the most important historical buildings in the city of Alicante (Spain).

107 **2. MATERIALS AND METHODS**

108 **2.1. Characterization of materials and specimens**

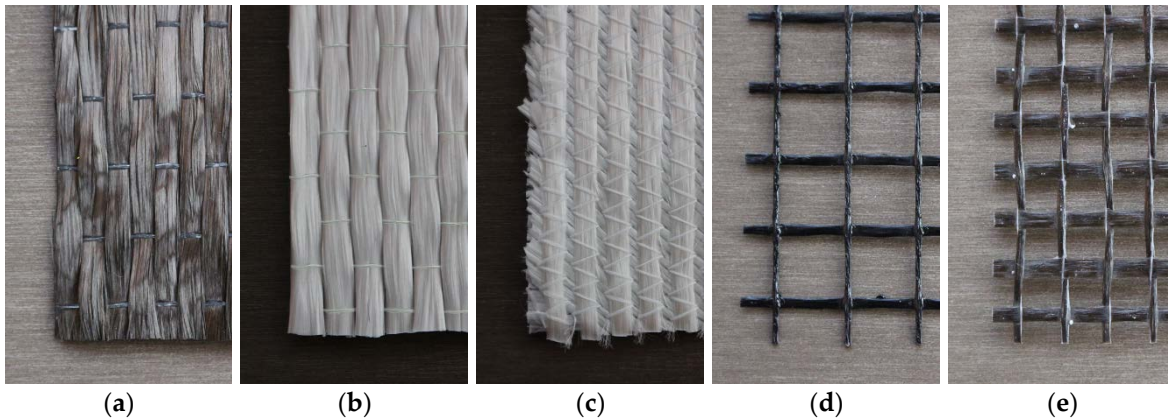
109 The stone samples used in the fabrication of the masonry specimens were obtained from a railway
110 tunnel excavation, under a former quarry near the sea in Alicante (Spain). From the geotechnical
111 survey materials, a total number of 96 calcarenite pieces with cylindrical shape (83 mm diameter
112 and 70 mm high) were selected. Each masonry specimen comprised three of those stone pieces and
113 4 mm thick mortar joints between them. Therefore, the dimensions of each test specimen were a
114 diameter of 83 mm and a height of 218 mm. The slenderness of the samples, height/diameter ratio,
115 was 2.63, between the recommended values of 2.5 and 3 in the standards for compression tests. In
116 addition, one-piece rock samples with 72 mm diameter and 180 mm height were also prepared in
117 order to characterize the mechanical and physical properties of the rock, according to the
118 procedures in ASTM D7012-14e1 [40]. The average \pm standard deviation values of four samples
119 were: bulk density 1982 ± 28 kg/m³; compressive strength 19.99 ± 1.61 N/mm²; modulus of
120 elasticity 11859 ± 475 N/mm²; Poisson's ratio 0.22 ± 0.03 . For additional information on the
121 mechanical performance of this rock refer to the following references [41,42]. The lime mortar for
122 the joints was a commercial mixture (53% aggregates and 47% natural lime), with water/binder
123 ratio of 0.60, and a 7.5 N/mm² minimum compressive strength after 28 days, according to the
124 supplier. Figure 1 includes an example of the masonry preparation process and the whole set of 32
125 samples, which were kept in laboratory conditions for 18 months before casting the FRP or FRCM
126 confinement.

127 Masonry confinement was made with two different types of composite: fiber reinforced polymers
128 (FRP) and fabric reinforced cementitious matrix (FRCM). Three different fabrics were used for the
129 FRP: unidirectional carbon fiber, unidirectional glass fiber and quadraxial glass fiber, as shown
130 respectively in Figure 2 (a), (b) and (c), all of them with an epoxy resin matrix. On the other hand,

131 FRCM included two different reinforcements, glass fiber mesh (Figure 2(d)) or basalt fiber mesh
 132 (Figure 2(e)), and a cement based mortar matrix.



133 Fig. 1. Stone masonry preparation: (a) lime mortar and vertical alignment; (b) 32 masonry specimens before
 134 reinforcement.



135 Fig. 2. Fabrics for the FRP reinforcements: (a) unidirectional CFRP; (b) unidirectional GFRP; (c) quadraxial
 136 GFRP. Meshes for FRCM jackets: (d) glass fiber mesh; (e) basalt fiber mesh.

137 The mechanical properties of each composite were measured in direct tensile tests in order to obtain
 138 the elastic modulus and tensile strength. Therefore, 15 FRP specimens were prepared, five per each
 139 FRP type, in which tensile tests were made according to ASTM D7565/D7565M-10 (2017) [43].

140 Figure 3 includes the stress-strain results for each sample (CU carbon uniaxial, GU glass uniaxial
 141 and GM glass multiaxial); while Table 1 summarizes the mechanical properties for the raw
 142 materials (fabrics and resin) according to the supplier, and the composite's properties measured
 143 experimentally (average values and coefficient of variation for five samples are given). CFRP
 144 samples presented the highest strength and stiffness, 637 MPa and 56 GPa, both calculated with
 145 respect to the gross cross section as ASTM D7565 requires [43]. Uniaxial GFRP achieved almost

the same strength level, 539 MPa, because the fabric's weight was higher (900 g/m²). They also showed higher elongation at failure than their CFRP counterparts did, 2.21% against 1.16%. On the other hand, despite the higher fiber dosage of multiaxial fabric (1140 g/m²), these composites presented the lowest mechanical performance because the dimensions and orientation of fibers reduced their efficiency.

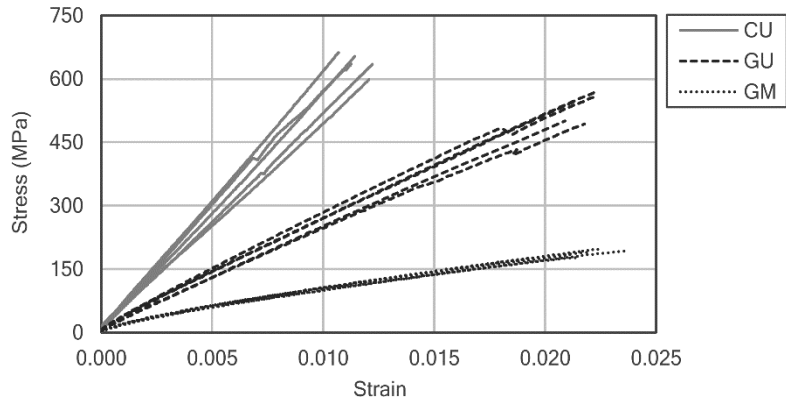


Fig. 3. Stress vs strain results measured in uniaxial tension tests according to ASTM D7565/D7565M-10 (2017) for different FRP types: uniaxial CFRP (CU), uniaxial GFRP (GU), and multiaxial GFRP (GM).

Table 1. Main properties of FRP raw materials and composite specimens.

	Fabric ¹			Epoxy resin ¹	Composite ²		
	CU	GU	GM		CU	GU	GM
Weight (g/m ²)	300	900	1140	-	-	-	-
Thickness (mm)	0.166 ³	0.480 ³	0.438 ³	-	0.81 ⁴ (12.54%)	1.08 ⁴ (3.36%)	1.27 ⁴ (2.21%)
Tensile strength (MPa)	4830	2560	2600	40	637 (6.43%)	539 (7.48%)	184 (5.50%)
Elastic modulus (MPa)	230000	80700	73000	1400	56078 (7.60%)	25344 (6.06%)	8170 (5.12%)
Ultimate strain (%)	2	3 - 4	3.5 - 4	1.8	1.16 (6.01%)	2.21 (5.15%)	2.09 (8.89%)

¹ Values provided by supplier.

² Experimental average values from uniaxial tensile tests (coefficient of variation, in brackets).

³ Dry fabric thickness.

⁴ Composite thickness, measured with micrometer.

For the mechanical properties of FRCM, five coupons of each type were fabricated with dimensions 400x100x9 mm (length x width x thickness). Two different meshes, glass and basalt fibers, were used, both in a cement mortar matrix. The mechanical properties of these three materials as given by the supplier have been included in Table 2. In this case, tensile tests were made following the procedure included in AC434 [44]. The experimental configuration can be observed in Figure 4 (a) and (b), in which the elongation was measured with one LVDT. The mechanical behavior of FRCM

161 was quite different than FRPs, as shown in Figure 4(c). The idealized behavior included in AC434
 162 [44] is modeled as a bilinear function, which is comprised of an initial elastic response until the
 163 cement matrix begins to crack, and after this transition point (T) a strengthening phase may appear
 164 depending on the mesh properties and stress transmission between fibers and matrix.
 165 Table 2. FRCM mesh and mortar properties, values provided by supplier.

	Mesh		Mortar
	Glass fiber (GG)	Basalt fiber (BG)	
Mesh size (mm)	12.7 x 12.7	6 x 6	-
Weight (g/m ²)	125	250	-
Thickness (mm) ¹	0.024	0.039	-
Load-resistant area (mm ² /m)	23.51	38.91	-
Strength (kN/m)	30	60	≥ 28 ³ ≥ 10 ⁴
(N/mm ²)	1276 ²	1542 ²	
Elastic modulus (N/mm ²)	72000	89000	11000
Ultimate strain (%)	1.8	1.8	-

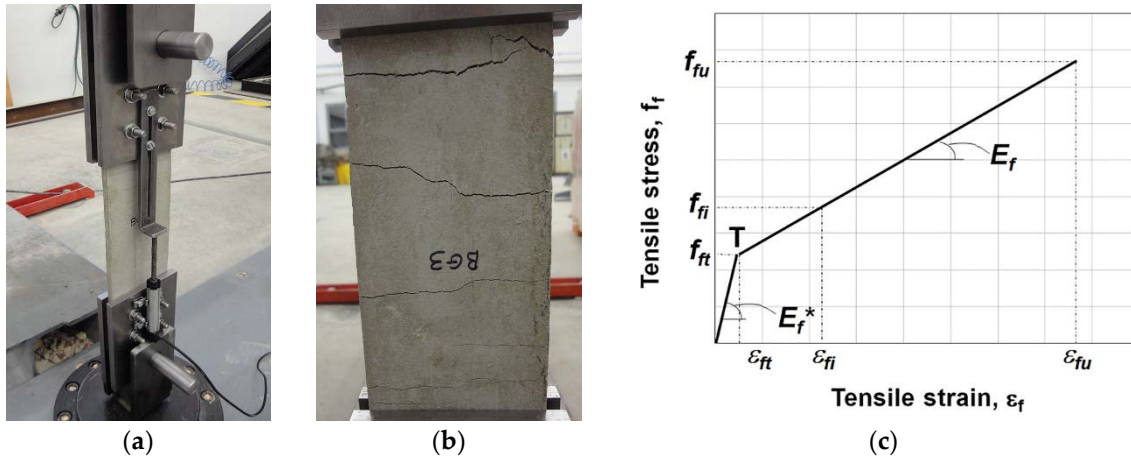
¹ Equivalent thickness of dry fabric.

² Values obtained from tensile strength (kN/m) and load-resistant area.

³ Compressive strength after 28 days.

⁴ Flexural strength after 28 days.

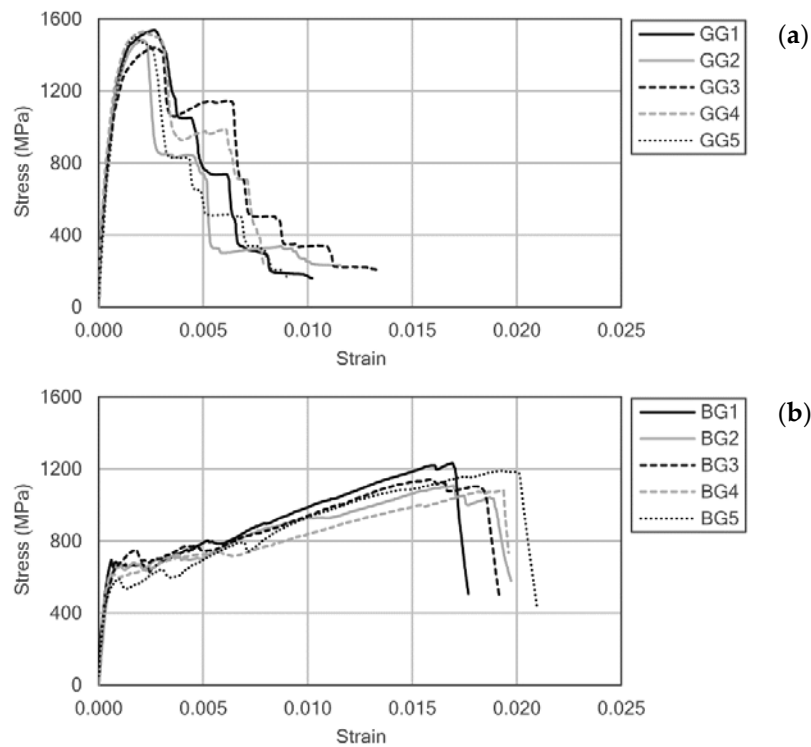
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167 Fig. 4. Direct tensile test of FRCM specimens: (a) experimental setup; (b) crack pattern of a basalt fiber
 168 sample; (c) stress vs strain idealized behavior as shown in AC434.

169 The mechanical strength depended on the mesh properties, as shown in the experimental results
 170 summarized in Figure 5, in which the stress values have been given by fiber's area as AC434
 171 specified [44]. The FRCM responses of each type of fiber were similar to others reported by Leone
 172 et al. [45]. The mechanical response of FRCM with glass fiber mesh can be observed in Figure 5(a)
 173 and did not present the increasing stress-strain behavior after the transition point as shown in the

174 idealized model of Figure 4(c). Instead, a transition zone appears at a maximum stress of 1200 MPa
 175 (approx.), which coincided with the cement matrix cracking, and was very close to the strength of
 176 the glass fibers. Afterwards, the progressive failure of each fiber occurred, with different softening
 177 curves depending on the actual loading conditions of each particular specimen. On the other hand,
 178 basalt fiber FRCM shown in Figure 5(b) presented a bilinear behavior similar to the model in
 179 AC434 [44], in which the transition point can be clearly detected and all fibers broke at once. In this
 180 case, elongation at failure was almost ten times the elongation corresponding to the transition point.
 181 Therefore, the reinforcement effect of the fiber mesh was perfectly registered, unlike glass fiber
 182 specimens. Table 3 summarizes all the experimental results of both FRCM according to the
 183 indications in AC434 [44], besides the average values of five tested samples, the corresponding
 184 coefficient of variation is given in brackets.



185 Fig. 5. Tensile test results, stress vs strain of FRCM specimens with (a) glass fiber mesh (GG) or (b) basalt
 186 fiber mesh (BG).

187 Table 3. FRCM properties, experimental values from uniaxial tensile tests ¹.

FRCM	f_{ft} (MPa)	ε_{ft}	E_f^* (MPa)	f_{fu} (MPa)	ε_{fu}	E_f (MPa)
GG	²	²	1393 (6.93%)	1474 (4.10%)	0.00273 (13.88%)	²
BG	638 (8.20%)	0.00074 (22.35%)	1128 (12.01%)	1177 (6.53%)	0.01771 (8.52%)	38510 (9.30%)

¹ Notation from AC434, Figure 4 (c); coefficient of variation, in brackets.

² Unreliable values, according to stress-strain curves.

2.2. Experimental campaign and test setup

Uniaxial compression tests were performed in 32 masonry samples, which have been divided into 8 different sets, each one with a different type of reinforcement, as shown in Table 4. The

identification of each sample was made using a six-character code: AA.BB.XX, in which:

- AA referred to the confinement material: N (non-reinforced), CU (uniaxial CFRP), GU (uniaxial GFRP), GM (quadraxial GFRP), GG (glass fiber FRCM) or BG (basalt fiber FRCM).
- BB referred to the number of reinforcement layers: one layer or three layers.
- XX referred to the identification number of the specimens in each set, i.e. 01, 02, 03 or 04.

Figure 6(a) summarizes the FRP reinforcement process, which included: (i) the preparation of the surface with a steel brush and the use of compressed air to remove any loose particles. (ii) Afterwards, the first epoxy layer was brushed all over the lateral surface. (iii) Then the fabric was aligned with the transverse direction of the sample, and to avoid bonding problems a 25% overlap (65 mm) was set. (iv) Finally, lateral pressure to the fabric was applied with an aluminum roller to make the resin flow through the fibers, and the rest of the epoxy was applied at the same time. Once the FRP was casted, samples were kept in laboratory conditions for 7 days to cure at approximately 20°C.

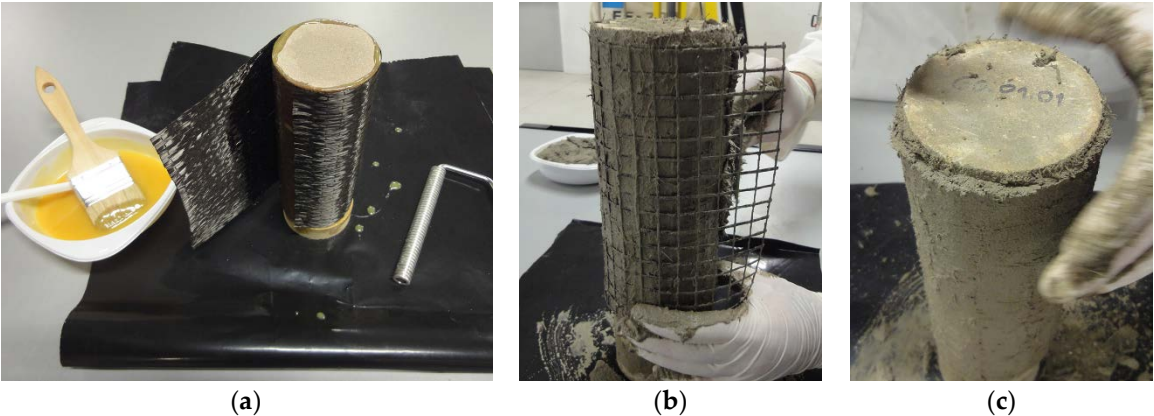
Table 4. Specimen's identification and characteristics of the reinforcement.

Set	Label ¹	Reinforcement	Layers	Samples
01	N.00.XX	-	-	4
02	CU.01.XX	CFRP, uniaxial	1	4
03	GU.01.XX	GFRP, uniaxial	1	4
04	GM.01.XX	GFRP, quadraxial	1	4
05	GG.01.XX	FRCM, glass fiber mesh	1	4
06	GG.03.XX	FRCM, glass fiber mesh	3	4
07	BG.01.XX	FRCM, basalt fiber mesh	1	4
08	BG.03.XX	FRCM, basalt fiber mesh	3	4

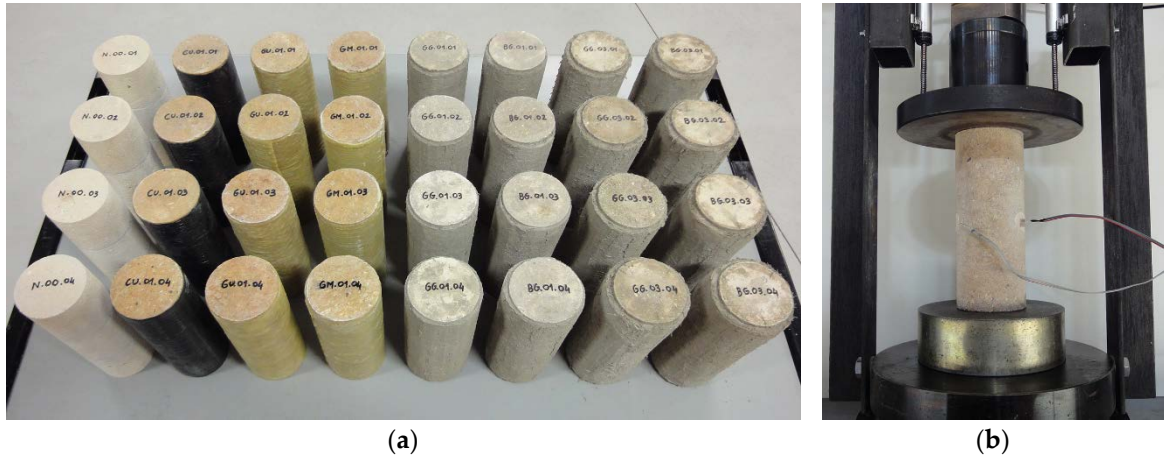
¹ 4 samples per set (XX = 01, 02, 03, 04)

On the other hand, the procedure to confine with FRCM was slightly different, as shown in Figures 6(b) and (c). The initial surface treatment was analogue to the one in FRP confined samples (steel brush and compressed air). Before casting the first mortar layer, samples were water-sprayed to avoid that rock specimens absorbed water from the mortar of the FRCM. The FRCM jacket was

210 casted in three steps: initial mortar layer, 3-4 mm thick; fiber mesh with 50% overlap (130 mm);
 211 and second mortar layer 3-4 mm thick. The fresh mortar was finished with a spatula, and in
 212 addition, at both ends of the specimen, the mortar was removed in the first 5 mm (Figure 6(c)) in
 213 order to avoid direct vertical compression in the jacket during the loading of masonry samples.
 214 Finally, samples were kept in laboratory conditions for 28 days. All prepared samples with different
 215 reinforcements are shown in Figure 7(a).



216 Fig. 6. Reinforcement of masonry samples with composites: (a) FRP confinement; (b) mortar and fiber mesh
 217 of FRCM confinement, and (c) end faces for a proper load application.



218 Fig. 7. Test procedure: (a) general view of the 32 tested samples with different reinforcements; (b)
 219 longitudinal compression test setup.

220 All samples were tested under uniaxial compression in an electromechanical press with a load cell
 221 with maximum capacity of 300 kN. Tests were made at a fixed loading rate of 0.5 MPa/s, according
 222 to the recommendations in ASTM D7012-14e1 [40]. An example of the experimental setup is
 223 shown in Figure 7(b), in which the upper ball and joint guarantees the load alignment, two LVDTs
 224 were used to register vertical deformations, and two longitudinal strain gages were attached to the

225 middle section to monitor transverse strains. A data monitoring device, HBM Spider with Catman
226 software, was used to register all channels at 2 Hz frequency.

227 **3. EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

228 Different confinement solutions using FRP and FRCM with several types of fiber, as detailed
229 above, were tested under uniaxial compression to discuss the efficiency of each material in terms of
230 strength increase and ductility. During every test deformations were monitored, longitudinal values
231 were measured using LVDTs, while two strain gages were used in transverse direction. However,
232 in the following discussion only longitudinal strain versus compressive stress curves have been
233 represented for a proper mechanical performance analysis. The transverse strain data have been
234 included only in tables and were used in the analytical study based on different design codes. All
235 the stress-strain curves of masonry specimens below include a thick black curve for the average
236 stress value (4 samples in each set), and a grey-shadowed area corresponding to the 95%
237 bidirectional confidence interval for the stress measure at each strain level. These confidence
238 intervals were calculated according to UNE 66040:2003 [46] and have been only represented in the
239 strain range with at least three measures. In the graphs of confined samples, the average curve
240 corresponding to unreinforced masonry has been also included for a better comparison. During the
241 discussion and analyses, the following notation was used:

242 f_{mo} Peak compressive strength of unreinforced masonry (MPa)

243 f_{mc} Peak compressive strength of confined masonry (MPa)

244 ϵ_{mo} Strain at failure of unreinforced masonry (longitudinal)

245 ϵ_{mc} Strain at failure of confined masonry (longitudinal)

246 $\epsilon_{mo,t}$ Strain at failure of unreinforced masonry (transverse)

247 $\epsilon_{mc,t}$ Strain at failure of confined masonry (transverse)

248 ϵ_{fu} Strain at failure of the FRP or FRCM, obtained in direct tensile tests

249 g_m Unreinforced masonry mass-density (kg/m³)

250 E_m Modulus of elasticity of the unreinforced masonry (MPa), determined as the average slope
 251 of the straight-line portion of the stress-strain curve [40]

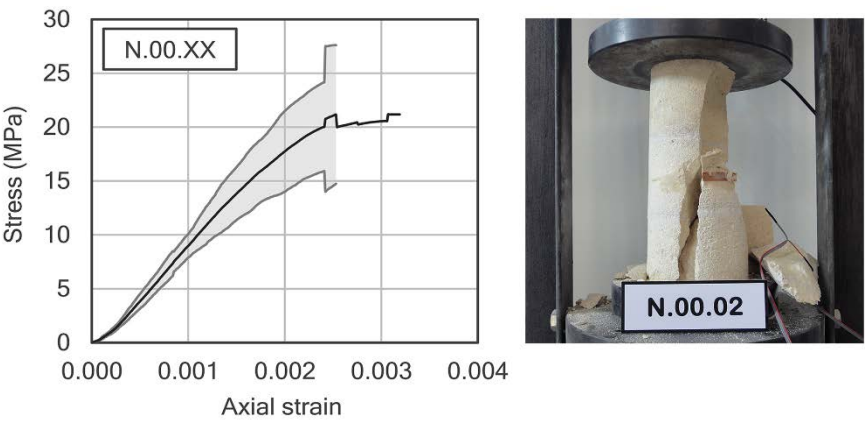
252 **3.1. Unconfined columns**

253 Table 5 includes a summary of the mechanical properties measured in unreinforced masonry
 254 specimens. For each property, the average value and the coefficient of variation (in brackets, as
 255 percentage) have been included. The compressive strength was similar to other calcarenite
 256 specimens (without mortar) tested in other experimental campaign [47]. However, a slight
 257 reduction of the elastic modulus was measured, probably because of the lime mortar joints. Figure
 258 8 includes the compressive stress-strain results, and an example of the type of failure of this
 259 unreinforced masonry set. The mechanical behavior was linear up to 85% of the material's
 260 strength, and failure occurred in a similar way to one-piece calcarenite samples (without lime
 261 mortar joints).

262 Table 5. Unconfined columns: experimental results, average value (coefficient of variation).

f_{mo} (MPa)	ϵ_{mo}	$\epsilon_{mo,t}$	E_m (MPa)	g_m (kg/m ³)
20.79 (11.29%)	0.00264 (10.95%)	0.00056 (26.86%)	10973 (14.85%)	2013 (1.79%)

263



264

265 Fig. 8. Unreinforced masonry results: longitudinal stress-strain curve (average \pm 95% confidence interval)
 266 and failure mode.

267 **3.2. FRP confined columns**

268 The next analysis comprises all samples with FRP reinforcements, with unidirectional glass or
 269 carbon fiber or quadraxial glass fiber fabrics. Table 6 summarizes all results of FRP confined

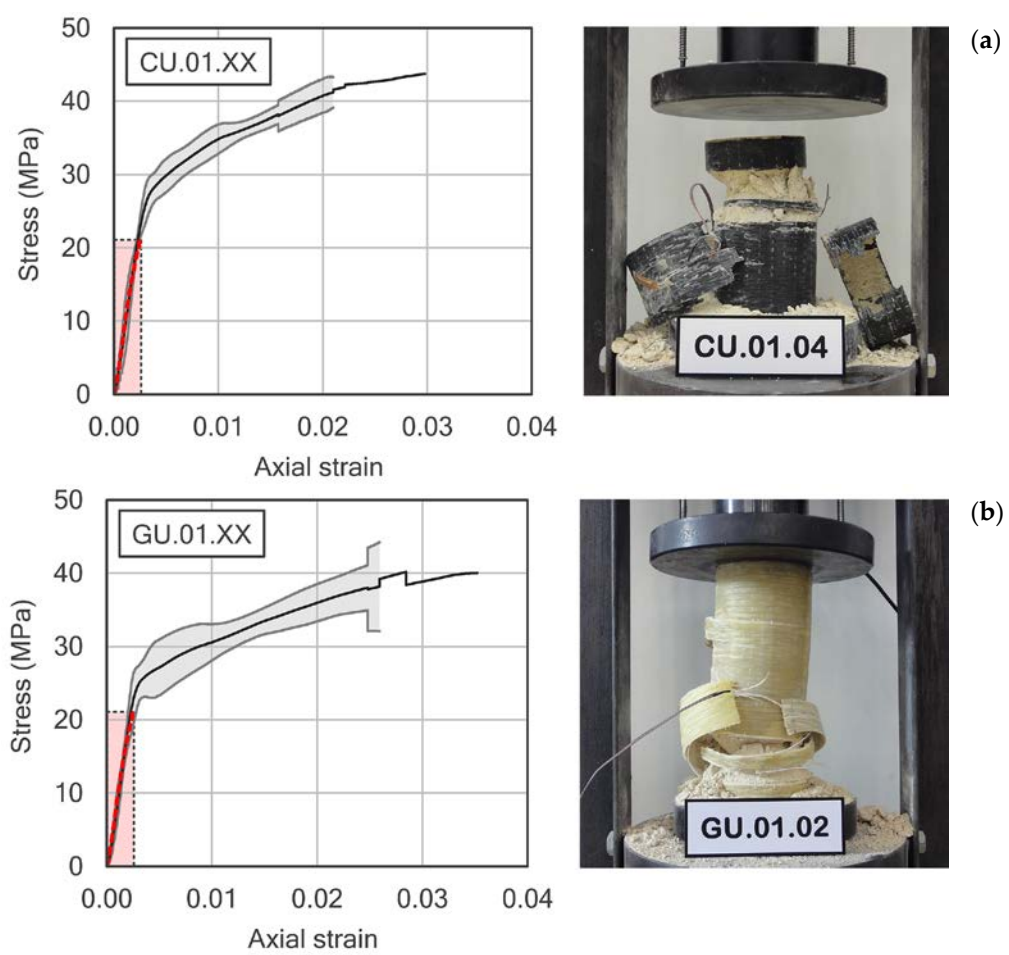
masonry specimens. In addition to the compressive strength or strain at failure values, the ratios between reinforced and unreinforced values (f_{mc}/f_{mo} and $\epsilon_{mc}/\epsilon_{mo}$) have also been included to evaluate the effectiveness of the confinement. Transverse ultimate strains (measured with strain gages) have been given in order to evaluate the FRP efficiency factor $k_e = \epsilon_{mc,t}/\epsilon_{fu}$, as the ratio with respect to the strain at failure of direct tensile FRP samples (included above in Table 1). Actually, this k_e coefficient represents one of the main differences between the recommendations of different structural codes. Nonetheless, section 4 will include a detailed discussion of the recommendations of the Italian codes CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 [34] and CNR-DT 215/2018 [35].

Table 6. FRP confined masonry: experimental results, average values (coefficient of variation).

Set	f_{mc} (MPa)	f_{mc}/f_{mo}	ϵ_{mc}	$\epsilon_{mc}/\epsilon_{mo}$	$\epsilon_{mc,t}$	ϵ_{fu}	k_e
CU.01.XX	41.17 (5.00%)	1.98	0.02217 (26.13%)	8.40	0.00881 (20.82%)	0.0116	0.76
GU.01.XX	39.18 (6.28%)	1.88	0.02864 (16.65%)	10.85	0.01325 (16.11%)	0.0221	0.60
GM.01.XX	31.91 (4.12%)	1.54	0.01904 (10.52%)	7.21	0.00627 (17.68%)	0.0209	0.30

Figure 9 includes the experimental stress-strain curves and failure modes of all three confinements. Both unidirectional laminates, CFRP in Figure 9(a) and GFRP in Figure 9(b), showed the typical bilinear response, which is characteristic of confined concrete or stone elements [8, 20]. The initial elastic response was similar to the unreinforced specimen, as the transverse elongations were too small, and the confinement effect was negligible at this stage. Afterwards, for stresses above the strength of unreinforced masonry, the core started cracking and the second strengthening behavior was registered. The strength increase and especially a high ductility could be easily observed. CFRP led to slightly stronger confinement, while GFRP jackets showed better ultimate strain values for the confined masonry. These results can be related to the mechanical properties of both FRP as shown in Table 1, in which the highest strength was achieved with CFRP laminates, but GFRPs presented an ultimate strain almost twice than CFRP did. Both unidirectional laminates showed similar failure modes, with explosive failure (due to the brittle behavior of FRP) when the FRP jacket broke in the central section of the masonry specimen. In addition, the damage suffered by the rock core was higher in the CFRP reinforced samples, which broke into smaller stone aggregates.

On the other hand, quadraxial FRP reinforcement didn't show so good results for the experimental conditions of these tests, in which their confinement capacity was limited (there was low fiber weight oriented in transverse direction). Therefore, the strength increase was notably lower than their unidirectional counterparts were, and instead of the strengthening behavior after the transition point, a softening curve was registered, Figure 9(c). On the other hand, the failure mode was more progressive, as the $\pm 45^\circ$ fibers were capable of controlling it for a non-brittle failure. In these cases, the ultimate strain was determined as the strain corresponding to a stress decrease equal to 20% of the sample's strength [15]. Besides, the core material seemed to be less fractured and disaggregated. Nonetheless, this solution seemed to be the less effective from a confinement point of view, as most of the fibers were not oriented in the best working direction.



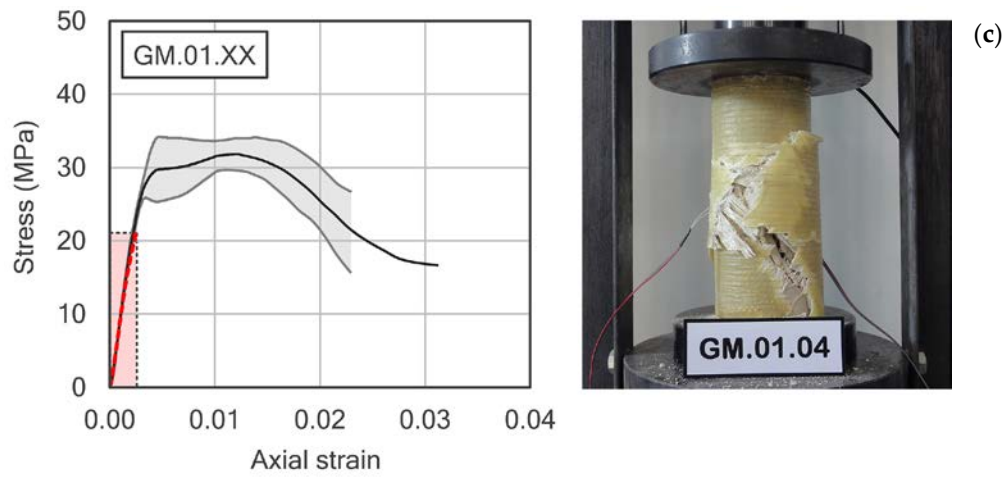
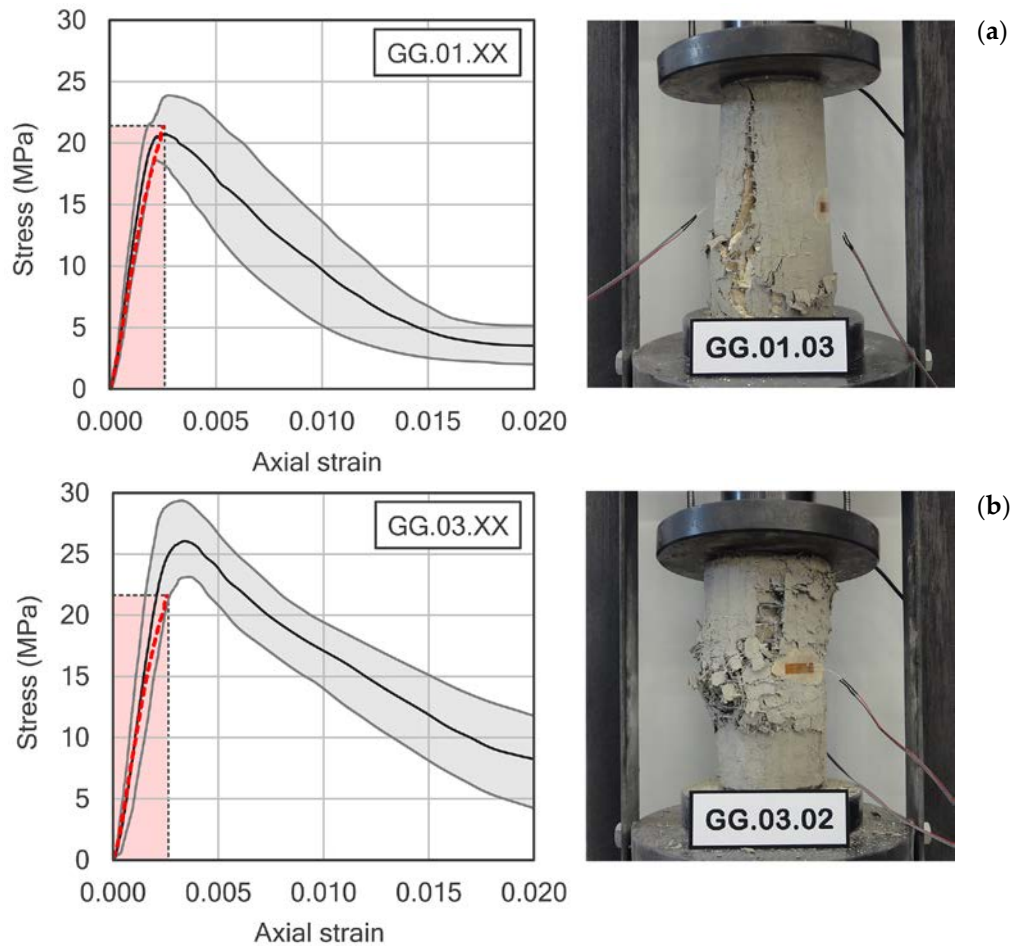


Fig. 9. FRP confined masonry specimens: (a) unidirectional CFRP; (b) unidirectional GFRP; (c) quadraxial GFRP. The average curve of the unreinforced masonry is remarked in the left corner.

3.3. FRCM confined columns

The effect of FRCM confinement in masonry specimens was evaluated using two parameters, the number of layers of the reinforcement mesh (one or three) and the type of fiber (glass or basalt). Table 7 includes a summary of the experimental results, while Figure 10 includes the average stress-strain curves and failure mode of each set.



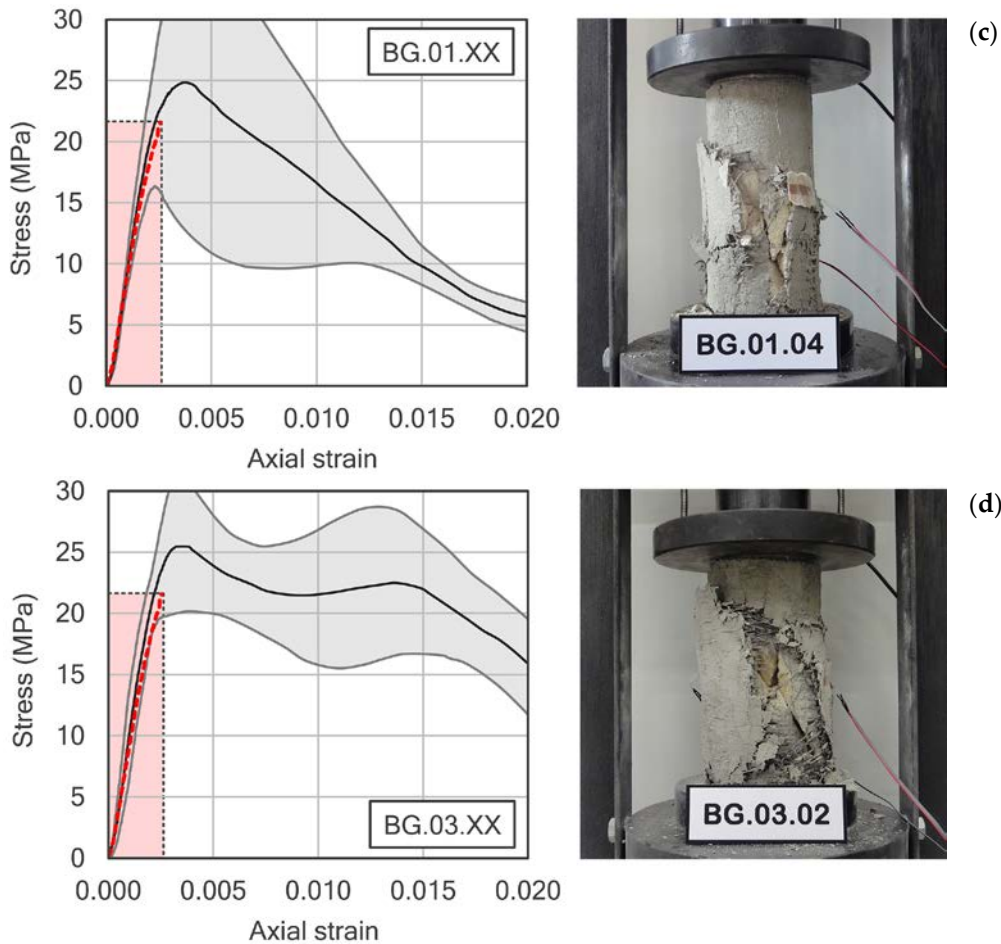


Fig. 10. FRCM confined masonry specimens: (a) 1 layer of glass fiber mesh; (b) 3 layers of glass fiber mesh; (c) 1 layer of basalt fiber mesh; (d) 3 layers of basalt fiber mesh. The average curve of the unreinforced masonry is remarked in the left corner.

In this case, the behavior of FRCM reinforced masonry was different than the aforementioned confinement with FRPs. The dispersion of the results was much bigger in FRCM, e.g. the coefficient of variation for the confined compressive strength was below 6.3% in FRP samples, whilst FRCM confinement presented variations between 6.8% and 26.6%. Basalt fibers showed the most dispersed results, as shown by the confidence intervals in Figure 10. In general, confined samples presented a bilinear response as shown before in FRP confinements, Figure 9(a) and (b), in which after surpassing the strength of the unreinforced rock, the stiffness was reduced but an ascending stress-strain curve was still registered before failure. However, FRCM confinements did not show this hardening behavior, and after the maximum stress, the effect of the jacket was only detected as a ductile behavior capable of controlling the stress loss at higher deformations. At best, FRCM led to a 25% increase of the compressive strength of masonry, when CFRP almost doubled

it. The FRCM with only one layer of glass fiber mesh obtained the same strength level than the bare masonry set. The main difference between mesh types and number of layers was observed in the softening behavior, in which the progressive failure of the reinforcement occurred as fiber meshes broke. Hence, there was not neither an explosive failure nor a clear failure point like those in FRP confined specimens. In order to evaluate the ductility gain, the same criteria explained for FRP confined specimens was used to select failure strain values (20% stress drop after peak stress [15]). These strain values, included in Table 7, the confined samples with better ductility were obtained using basalt fiber meshes. Actually, only the set reinforced with three layers of basalt fibers achieved a deformation level of 1.68% (6 times higher than unreinforced masonry), and similar to FRP confined samples, but with only a 24% strength gain. From the point of view of the failure mode, once again it was completely different to the aforementioned explosive behavior of FRP confinement. As shown in Figure 10, masonry specimens after failure were barely damaged, and the fracture was almost similar to unconfined samples.

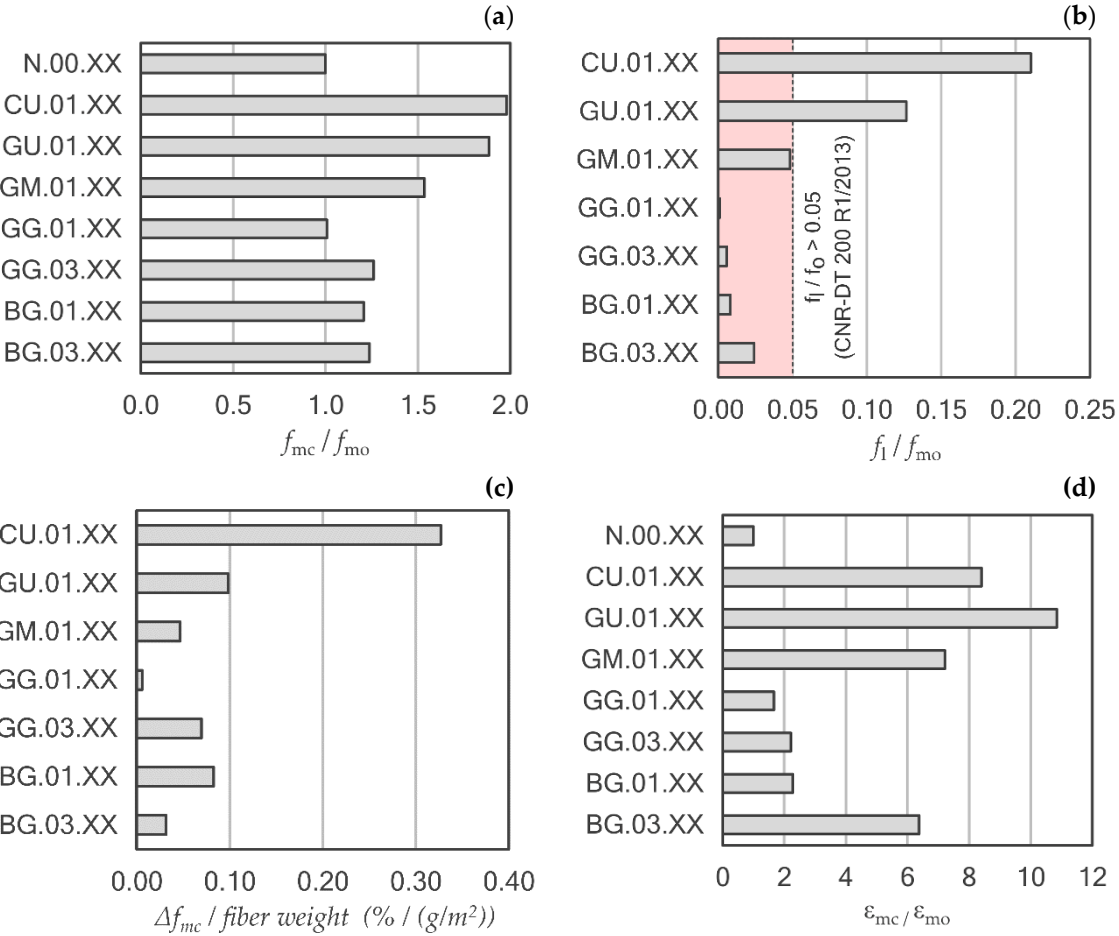
Table 7. FRCM confined columns: experimental results, average value (coefficient of variation).

Set	f_{mc} (MPa)	f_{mc}/f_{mo}	ϵ_{mc}	$\epsilon_{mc}/\epsilon_{mo}$	$\epsilon_{mc,t}$	ϵ_{fu}	k_ϵ
GG.01.XX	20.95 (9.06%)	1.01	0.00439 (11.32%)	1.66	0.00059 (29.69%)	0.00273	0.22
GG.03.XX	26.22 (6.84%)	1.26	0.00583 (12.19%)	2.21	0.00054 (26.05%)	0.00273	0.20
BG.01.XX	25.09 (26.58%)	1.21	0.00601 (14.06%)	2.28	0.00196 (21.67%)	0.01771	0.11
BG.03.XX	25.74 (11.49%)	1.24	0.01683 (20.20%)	6.37	0.00418 (14.08%)	0.01771	0.23

3.3. Comparative study

Before any further discussion, the differences in the dispersion of results should be remarked. As shown in the confidence intervals of Figures 9 and 10, the behavior of FRP confinements was more homogeneous, and FRCM jackets showed higher dispersion of their mechanical response. For a better comparison between each composite, and their efficiency as confinement solution, Figure 11 includes the strength and strain ratios between reinforced samples and unreinforced masonry, i.e. f_{mc}/f_{mo} and $\epsilon_{mc}/\epsilon_{mo}$ respectively. In addition, Figure 11(b) represents the confinement ratios of each system, and Figure 11(c) includes the ratio of the strength gain with respect of the amount of fibers

349 used in the reinforcement. The strength increase in Figure 11(c) was assessed as $(f_{mc}/f_{mo} - 1)$, and
 350 the represented ratio considers also the weight of fibers (fabric or mesh) per unit area.



351 Fig. 11. Confinement efficiency: (a) f_{mc}/f_{mo} ratio; (b) confinement level f_l/f_{mo} ; (c) strength increase by fiber
 352 weight used for confinement; (d) $\epsilon_{mc}/\epsilon_{mo}$ ratio.

353 If the strength gains are compared, Figure 11(a), CFRP jackets were the most effective solution,
 354 whose confinement capacity practically doubled the compressive strength of unreinforced masonry.
 355 The uniaxial GFRP achieved almost the same strengthening as CFRP. Despite glass fiber's strength
 356 was lower than carbon fibers (Table 1), the GFRP strength was closer to CFRP thanks to a higher
 357 fabric weight (GFRP 900 g/m² against CFRP 300 g/m²). Quadraxial glass fiber fabrics only were
 358 capable of a 54% strength increase. The effectiveness of each FRP can be also observed in Figure
 359 11(c), in which fabric's weight was also consider. The strength gain was 0.33% (carbon fibers),
 360 0.10% (uniaxial glass fibers) or 0.05% (quadraxial glass fiber) per each unit weight of fiber in the
 361 confinement. These results can be justified by the higher mechanical strength of carbon fibers, and
 362 the fiber's orientation of quadraxial GFRP.

363 Nevertheless, FRCM confinements could not achieved these results, and their best mechanical
364 performance (only a 26% improvement) was obtained with three mesh layers. The low mechanical
365 performance can be also explain based on the confinement ratios included in Figure 11(b). Only the
366 confinements made in uniaxial CFRP or GFRP surpass the minimum level of confinement
367 suggested in CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 ($f_i/f_{mo} > 5\%$). Hence, based on the actual confinement levels of
368 each material FRCM shouldn't present an increasing stress-strain response [13]. Therefore, the
369 FRCM types tested in this work did not seem as an appropriate solution for the confinement of
370 masonry elements under compression, if a strength increase was expected. However, in other
371 references, a better mechanical performance of these materials was achieved with fibers and
372 mortars with higher mechanical properties, for example, up to three layers of carbon fibers (with
373 strength of 3350 MPa and elastic modulus of 225 GPa) [15], or PBO fibers (strength 5800 MPa,
374 modulus 270 GPa) [18]. In both cases the mechanical properties of the fibers were higher than
375 those used in this research, which can explain the better strengthening result. Nonetheless, this type
376 of FRCM may be a suitable solution for other loading conditions like lateral in-plane loads induced
377 by seismic actions [48].

378 From the point of view of the increase of the ultimate strain and ductility gain, Figure 11(d), once
379 again unidirectional FRP presented the best results. GFRP jackets increase more than 10 times the
380 ultimate strain of masonry. Confinements with quadraxial fabrics achieved a 7 times strain
381 increase, despite most of the fiber's weight was wasted because their orientation. Finally, according
382 to the current experimental tests the use of FRCM as confinement solution did not seem an
383 appropriate solution. Only several layers of basalt fiber FRCM may have been shown a slight
384 strength increase but with more than six times the ultimate strain (determined for a 20% stress drop
385 after peak stress). Hence, this type of FRCM may be selected to increase the ductility of masonry
386 columns.

387 **3.4. Comparison with design guidelines**

388 In this last section, the experimental results presented above have been compared with the values
 389 obtained following the procedure in two Italian guidelines: CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 [34] for FRP
 390 strengthening of structures and CNR-DT 215/2018 [35], recently released with specific
 391 considerations for FRCM reinforcements. Other available design codes consider confinement
 392 models for axially loaded elements [36-39]. In general, the constitutive laws in these codes only
 393 include parameters to evaluate concrete structures. Hence, the Italian guidelines were selected
 394 because they are currently the only two that considered specific values for masonry or stone
 395 structures.
 396 These codes assume a confinement model based on Lam & Teng [13], in which the compressive
 397 strength of the confined element (f_{mc}) is related to the unreinforced masonry strength (f_{mo})
 398 according to Eq. (1).

$$f_{mc} = f_{mo} \left[1 + k' \left(\frac{f_{l,eff}}{f_{mo}} \right)^{\alpha_1} \right] \quad (1)$$

399 where $f_{l,eff}$ is the effective confinement stress; α_1 is a coefficient that can be assumed equal to 0.5,
 400 or determined based on experimental tests; k' is a non-dimensional coefficient that can be
 401 determined using Eq. (2).

$$k' = \alpha_2 \left(\frac{g_m}{1000} \right)^{\alpha_3} \quad (2)$$

402 where g_m is the unreinforced masonry mass-density (kg/m^3) and coefficients α_2 and α_3 may be
 403 assumed equal to 1.0, unless additional experimental evidence says otherwise. In addition, the
 404 effective confinement stress ($f_{l,eff}$) depends on the shape of the cross section of the confined
 405 element, and the material and configuration of the jacket. Both effects are considered in the
 406 efficiency factor (k_{eff}), which will be equal to 1.0 in the conditions of the samples in this work
 407 (cylindrical samples and continuous jacket, FRP or FRCM, along the total length of each sample).
 408 Hence, in the calculations below, the confinement stress f_l matches with the effective confinement
 409 stress $f_{l,eff}$.

$$f_{l,eff} = k_{eff} \cdot f_l \approx f_l \quad (3)$$

410 The lateral confinement stress can be obtained from the equilibrium in a cross section of the
 411 confined element, Eq. (4), where n_f is the number of layers in the reinforcement; t_f the thickness of
 412 the FRP, or the equivalent thickness of fibers in FRCM reinforcements (without considering the
 413 cement matrix); E_f is the elastic modulus of the FRP or the fiber mesh in FRCM; $\varepsilon_{f,red}$ is the
 414 reduced strain at failure of the jacket; and D is the diameter of the masonry element to be confined.

$$f_1 = \frac{2 n_f t_f E_f \varepsilon_{f,red}}{D} \quad (4)$$

415 The reduced strain at failure of the jacket will be obtained differently depending on the type of
 416 reinforcement. For example, for FRP confinement the minimum value of two conditions shall be
 417 consider, Eq. (5). The first factor includes durability issues: the coefficient η_a depends on the FRP
 418 type and the exposure level, for non-exposed elements this factor is 0.95 for CFRP or 0.75 for
 419 GFRP; ε_{fu} is the ultimate strain of the FRP in direct tensile tests; finally, γ_f is an additional safety
 420 factor equal to 1.10 for confinement reinforcement.

$$\varepsilon_{f,red} = \min \left(\frac{\eta_a \varepsilon_{fu}}{\gamma_f}; 0.004 \right) \quad (5)$$

421 The second limit, 0.004, is defined to avoid an excessive damage of the masonry core, which could
 422 compromise the structural stability, especially under out-of-plane loads. This second condition is
 423 also applicable to FRCM reinforcements, Eq. (6), but in that case, the first limit is slightly
 424 modified: η_a only depends on the exposure (0.90 in this case) but does not depend on the fiber type
 425 of the FRCM. The safety factor γ_m is 1.50 in ULS, and there is an additional non-dimensional
 426 factor that considers the matrix characteristics and can be obtained using Eq. (7).

$$\varepsilon_{f,red} = \min \left(\frac{k_{mat} \eta_a \varepsilon_{fu}}{\gamma_m}; 0.004 \right) \quad (6)$$

$$k_{mat} = \alpha_4 \left(\frac{4 t_{mat}}{D} \cdot \frac{f_{c,mat}}{f_{mo}} \right)^2 \leq 1 \quad (7)$$

427 where α_4 is assumed 1.81 when additional experimental data are unavailable; t_{mat} is the total
 428 thickness of the FRCM jacket; and $f_{c,mat}$ is the characteristic compressive strength of the mortar
 429 matrix.

Table 8 summarizes the experimental strength values and increases of all tested sets, together with the corresponding predictions obtained with the models in CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 [34] or CNR-DT 215/2018 [35], for FRP or FRCM reinforcements respectively. In the calculations of the guidelines, the parameters α_1 , α_2 , α_3 and α_4 assumed all aforementioned predefined values. On the other hand, the properties of the reinforcement materials were obtained in tensile tests for the composites (Table 1 and Table 3), and the properties of the raw materials (fibers and cement matrix) were given by the supplier (Table 2). The thickness of the FRPs was measured in the direct tensile samples and assumed the same in the confinement jacket (as the resin dosage was maintained). On the other hand, an average 7 or 10 mm thickness was considered for FRCM jackets with one or three layers. Finally, the strength predictions have been compared to the average experimental capacity, hence the safety factor γ_m in Eq. (6) has been assumed equal to 1.00.

Table 8. Experimental results vs theoretical prediction.

Set	Experimental		Prediction		$f_{mc}^{exp} / f_{mc}^{theo}$	Guide
	f_{mc} (MPa)	f_{mc} / f_{mo}	f_{mc} (MPa)	f_{mc} / f_{mo}		
CU.01.XX	41.17	1.98	39.97	1.92	1.03	CNR-DT 200 R1/2013
GU.01.XX	39.18	1.88	35.66	1.72	1.10	
GM.01.XX	31.91	1.54	29.96	1.44	1.06	
GG.01.XX	20.95	1.01	22.06	1.06	0.95	CNR-DT 215/2018
GG.03.XX	26.22	1.26	23.92	1.15	1.09	
BG.01.XX	25.09	1.21	24.54	1.18	1.02	
BG.03.XX	25.74	1.24	27.30	1.31	0.94	

A comparison between the strength ratios f_{mc}/f_{mo} of the prediction and experimental results has been included in Figure 12. Table 8 included only average values, while all 28 reinforced samples were represented in Figure 12, in which the dispersion of the results could be observed. In general, the dispersion levels were low, only the FRCM with basalt fibers presented more dispersed values, as could be expected with the confidence intervals presented above in Figure 10. The main conclusion of this analysis is the accuracy of the expressions in both guidelines, with errors below 10% that can be acceptable considering the usual dispersion that a material like masonry usually presents.

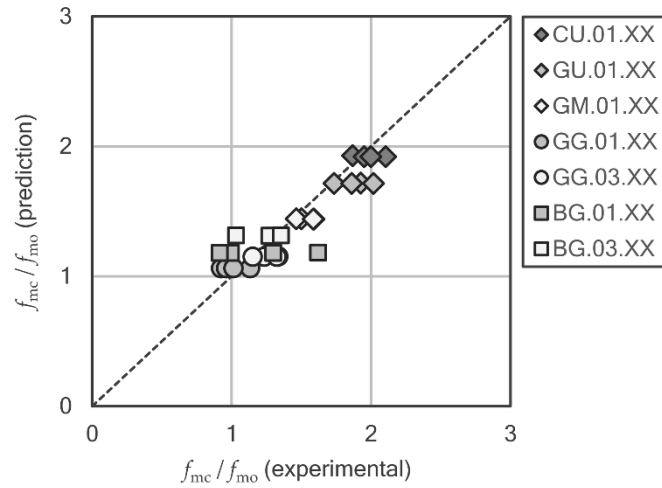


Fig. 12. CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 (FRP) or CNR-DT 215/2018 (FRCM) strength ratios (f_{mc}/f_{mo}) vs experimental results for confined masonry samples.

4. CONCLUSIONS

Masonry samples were prepared using calcarenite pieces from geotechnical surveys and lime mortar. Afterwards, different materials, FRP and FRCM each one with two types of fibers, were used as confinement to test experimentally their reinforcement efficiency. After the tests and different analyses, the following conclusions can be drawn:

1. Masonry samples confined with unidirectional GFRP and CFRP almost doubled the compressive strength of unreinforced masonry. These specimens also showed higher ductility with ultimate strain values up to ten times bigger than unreinforced samples.
2. Quadraxial GFRP presented a limited capacity as confinement solution because fiber orientation. However, the failure mode was more ductile, compared to the explosive brittle failure showed by the other GFRP and CFRP specimens.
3. FRCM jackets presented limited confinement ratio, hence the strength gain was up to 26% of the strength of unreinforced masonry. On the other hand, the stress-strain curves of the confined masonry with FRCM showed a softening behavior (decreasing curves), in which basalt fiber meshes seemed to generate more ductile failures. Higher fiber dosages or fibers with higher strength would be necessary to obtain increasing strain-stress curves with better strength gains.

470 4. These experimental results were compared with the confinement model predictions of two
471 Italian design guidelines, CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 for FRP and CNR-DT 215/2018 for FRCM.
472 Among all the available codes, these two were selected as the only ones that considered specific
473 values for masonry structures, which led to particularly accurate results, with errors below 10%
474 between the predicted and experimental values.

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480 **DATA AVAILABILITY**

481 Data may be available upon request to the corresponding author.

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607 D7565/D7565M-10 (2017) for different FRP types: uniaxial CFRP (CU), uniaxial GFRP (GU), and
608 multiaxial GFRP (GM).

609 Fig. 4. Direct tensile test of FRCM specimens: (a) experimental setup; (b) crack pattern of a basalt
610 fiber sample; (c) stress vs strain idealized behavior as shown in AC434.

611 Fig. 5. Tensile test results, stress vs strain of FRCM specimens with (a) glass fiber mesh (GG) or
612 (b) basalt fiber mesh (BG).

613 Fig. 6. Reinforcement of masonry samples with composites: (a) FRP confinement; (b) mortar and
614 fiber mesh of the FRCM confinement, and (c) end faces for a proper load application.

615 Fig. 7. Test procedure: (a) general view of the 32 tested samples with different reinforcements; (b)
616 longitudinal compression test setup.

617 Fig. 8. Unreinforced masonry results: longitudinal stress-strain curve (average \pm 95% confidence
618 interval) and failure mode.

619 Fig. 9. FRP confined masonry specimens: (a) unidirectional CFRP; (b) unidirectional GFRP; (c)
620 quadraxial GFRP. The average curve of the unreinforced masonry is remarked in the left corner.

621 Fig. 10. FRCM confined masonry specimens: (a) 1 layer of glass fiber mesh; (b) 3 layers of glass
622 fiber mesh; (c) 1 layer of basalt fiber mesh; (d) 3 layers of basalt fiber mesh. The average curve of
623 the unreinforced masonry is remarked in the left corner.

624 Fig. 11. Confinement efficiency: (a) f_{mc}/f_{mo} ratio; (b) confinement level f_l/f_{mo} ; (c) strength increase
625 by fiber weight used for confinement; (d) $\varepsilon_{mc}/\varepsilon_{mo}$ ratio.

626 Fig. 12. CNR-DT 200 R1/2013 (FRP) or CNR-DT 215/2018 (FRCM) strength ratios (f_{mc}/f_{mo}) vs
627 experimental results for confined masonry samples.